Arthropod Community Heterogeneity in a Mid-Atlantic Forest Highly Invaded by Alien Organisms

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ABSTRACT

Pitfall traps obtained 11,611 arthropods of 255 species and morphospecies in seven classes, 28 orders, and 72 families at four sites in a low forest in Dyke Marsh Wildlife Preserve, Virginia, USA, during 2000 and 2001. The study sites had a total of 41 plant species, ranging from 10 to 33 species per site. Alien plant cover among the four sites ranged from 10-89%. Three alien plant species covered an average of 58% of the study sites. Abundance of arthropods varied significantly in some taxonomic groups below the phylum level. Ants, mites, spiders, and springtails were the more diverse and abundant arthropods captured. Spider and ant species richness was highest in a site with 89% alien plant cover. This site also had the highest abundance of collembolans and alien millipeds. Ant abundance was highest in two sites dominated by Asian Bittersweet and Japanese Honeysuckle. Ant diversity is a possible indicator for the diversity of the entire arthropod community on the forest floor. Our study suggests that alien invasive plants are altering terrestrial arthropod abundance and diversity in this national park.

Key words: terrestrial arthropods, biodiversity, community heterogeneity, eastern deciduous forest, alien invasive plants, Ampelopsis brevipedunculata, Celastrus orbiculatus, Lonicera japonica

INTRODUCTION

Arthropods are highly diverse and live in nearly every habitat on Earth. Trillions of them are alive at any one time. Class Insecta alone may have 5-30 million species (Erwin, 1982; Novotny et al., 2002). Although arthropods are major parts of many communities, to our knowledge there are no comprehensive studies of overall arthropod biodiversity (in terms of species richness and abundances) in particular communities, except for Borges' (1999) study in the Azores. Published community studies often have limited arthropod species lists that are dependent on the local researchers' fields of interest, or the presence of an endangered species, or both (Bossart & Carlton, 2002).

Many papers address the biodiversity of one or only a few selected arthropod taxa. For the North American Mid-Atlantic Region, such studies include those by Erwin (1981), Barrows (1986), Smith & Barrows (1987), Butler et al. (1999), Brown (2001), Kalhorn et

al. (2003), and many references therein. There are a number of comprehensive, annotated lists of certain large arthropod taxa for particular regions including: Christiansen & Bellinger (1980), Henry & Froeschner (1988), and Krombien et al. (1984). Examples of lists that treat most insect groups are Britton (1920) for Connecticut, Leonard (1928) for New York, Proctor (1946) for Acadia National Park, Wray (1967) for North Carolina, Weissman & Kondratieff (1999) for Great Sand Dunes National Monument, and Haarstad (2003) for central Minnesota.

In view of the paucity of knowledge of arthropod communities worldwide, we examined the forest-floor arthropod community and its associated plants in a Mid-Atlantic forest.

METHODS

We conducted our study in the Dyke Marsh Wildlife Preserve (DMWP), Fairfax County, Virginia, USA, 38° 46' N, 77° 03' W, which contains a freshwater tidal

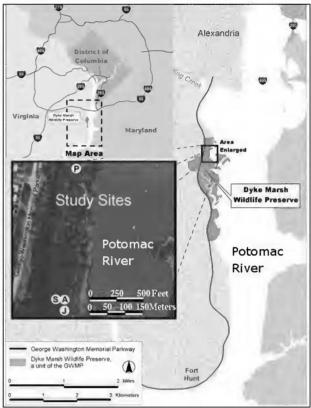


Fig. 1. Map of Dyke Marsh Wildlife Preserve showing locations of study sites.

marsh and bordering low deciduous forest and swamp forest along the Potomac River (Fig. 1). We sampled arthropods in four sites: three dominated by one of three species of alien plants, and one site dominated by native plants (Barrows & Kjar, 2004; keyword: DMWPss1). The alien Asiatic Bittersweet (Celastrus orbiculatus) was the most common plant cover in site A; alien Japanese Honeysuckle (Lonicera japonica), site J; alien Porcelainberry (Ampelopsis brevipedunculata), site P; and the native Sensitive Fern (Onoclea sensibilis), site S. In August 2000 we delineated a 10 x 10-m grid at each site with 100 1-m² plots using stakes and string. Each site had a 3-m-wide peripheral buffer zone with a flora similar to its central area. We censused each plot for all plants, including seedlings, using Brown & Brown (1984, 1992) and lists for DMWP in Xu (1991) and Haug (1993). Each plot was divided into four 0.5-m² quadrats. We determined plot plant coverage by counting the number of quadrats in which each plant species was rooted or by recording the presence or absence of a particular vine species in plots with dense vine cover.

To determine which arthropod species were present and test our null hypothesis that arthropod taxa did not differ in their abundances among the study sites, we used pitfall traps to collect arthropods on a warm, dry day during the third week of August, September, and October 2000 and June, July, August, September, and October 2001. During a trapping bout, we ran all traps during the same 24 h. Each site had 10 traps, each being in the central area of a randomly chosen 1-m² plot within the site. The trap comprised a large plastic cup (11.5-cm diameter x 13 cm deep), a small plastic cup (8-cm diameter x 10 cm deep), a funnel (11-cm top diameter and 2-cm bottom diameter), a thin plastic collar (16-cm outside diameter and 9.5-cm inside diameter), and a 32-cm² square wooden cover with four legs (2.5 x 2.5 x 4 cm). We closed the large cups with tightly fitting lids between trapping bouts. To prepare a trap for collecting arthropods, we opened its large cup, placed a small cup with 25 ml of 95% ethanol inside it, placed the collar over the large cup, placed a funnel on the collar, added a 5-mm deep layer of local soil over the collar, and centered the cover over the collar.

Although pitfall trapping cannot be used for absolute abundance estimates, it is the most accepted and time-efficient way to compare terrestrial arthropods among sites (Uetz et al., 1979; Porter & Savignano, 1990; Oliver & Beattie, 1996; Holway, 1998; Burger et al., 2001). Pitfall-trap catches of ants do not give a comprehensive view of the true abundance or diversity of ants within a site due to the social and behavioral differences in ant species. However, the random selection of plots within each site and the identical trapping regimes for each site allowed us to compare each site's trap catches within species and larger groups (e.g., Formicidae). Litter and vegetation architecture may also be a confounding factor when comparing pitfall catches in different habitats and must be taken into account (Greenslade, 1964),

We identified arthropods with the help of lab technicians and specialists, keys including those in Blatchley (1910, 1926), Bolton (1994), Borror et al. (1981), Christiansen & Bellinger (1980), Creighton (1950), Downie & Arnett (1996), and Henry et al. (1988), and digital images that we put online during specimen processing helped in rapid identification of common species (Barrows & Kjar, 2004). We excluded Acari from all quantitative analyses because their abundance depended on the amount of soil that inadvertently fell into a trap cup. Voucher specimens were deposited in the Arthropod Collection of the Laboratory of Entomology and Biodiversity at Georgetown University.

To test our null hypothesis, we used parametric and nonparametric analyses of variance (ANOVAs). For parametric analyses, we used raw or $\log_{10}(x+1)$ -transformed data and the *post hoc* multiple-comparison Student-Newman-Keuls (SNK test). For nonparametric

analyses, we used the Kruskal-Wallis test and the *post hoc* multiple-comparison Tukey test on rank sums (for Diplopoda and *Ponera pennsylvanicus*). We used SPSS version 10.1.0 (SPSS 2000) for all tests except for the Tukey test which we performed using Zar's (1984) method. Each trap's catch for both years is combined to produce the total for a trap. Within each site the totals from the 10 traps were used to produce the mean number of a particular taxon per trap for that site.

To ascertain arthropod diversities, we used the 2-yr cumulative arthropod abundances per site and all sites combined to calculate the Shannon-Weaver index, $H' = -\Sigma$ ($p_i \ln p_i$), where p_i is the frequency of the ith species (Krohne, 1998) and an index of evenness, $E = H'/\ln S$, where S is the number of species. E approaches 1.0 as total abundance becomes more evenly distributed among all species. To compare species diversity between sites, we used the Community Coefficient of Similarity, $CC = 2\Sigma C/(A+B)$ (Uetz, 1976), which we modified with an additional term where C = 1- $|(pC_a - pC_b)|$ for abundance weighting; pC_a and pC_b are the proportions of each species shared by both sites, and A or B are the number of species at each site.

RESULTS

Each site varied in plant species richness and identity of its dominant plant species (Table 1). Site P had the most alien plant coverage (89%), followed, in descending order, by sites A, J, and S (Table 1). We could find no area of 10 x 10 m without alien plants in the forest. Site S had the most diverse plant community (H' = 2.63), followed by sites J, A, and P (Table 1). Twenty-nine plant species occurred in site S, with no species exceeding 25% of the total site coverage. One species (A. brevipedunculata) covered 71% of site P, which had the lowest H' and evenness (E) of the four sites. Site A had the highest species richness, but only three species (C. orbiculatus, L. japonica, and Toxicodendron radicans, Poison Ivy) totaled 67% of its coverage. This resulted in a 19% lower H' and 21% lower E than site S, although site S had four fewer species than site A.

Pitfall traps collected 11,611 individual arthropods of 255 species and morphospecies in seven classes, 28 orders, and 72 families (Appendix 1). Images of most species are in Barrows & Kjar (2004). Thirteen taxa (Araneae, Coleoptera, Collembola, Diplopoda, Formicidae, Isopoda, Orthoptera, five formicid species, and one hahniid spider species) had significantly different mean abundances among sites (Tables 2-4). Sites P and S had more spiders (Araneae) and beetles (Coleoptera) than sites A and J. Each site had a significantly different number of springtails (Collembola) in its traps than the other sites ($P \le 0.05$, SNK test, Table 2). Millipeds and isopods were predominantly caught in site P (Table 2). All but four of the trapped millipeds were the alien, invasive julid *Ophyiulus pilosus*, native to Europe. Sites A and J had significantly higher numbers of ants than sites P and S ($P \le 0.05$, SNK test, Table 2). Orthoptera had similar abundances at sites A, P, and S, but site J had significantly fewer individuals ($P \le 0.05$, SNK test, Table 2).

Site P pitfalls caught the most ant species (16) and had the highest ant H' and E (Table 5). This site also yielded four ant species not caught at the other sites: Amblyopone pallipes, Crematogaster pilosa, Myrmica emeryana, and M. punctiventris. Crematogaster cervasi was captured only at site J and the only Proceratium silaceum were captured at site A. Prenolepis imparis accounted for >50% of all captured ants for sites A and J and 44% of the ants caught at site S. However at site P, 50% of all captured ants were Paratrechina faisonensis, whereas only 5% were P. imparis (Table 3).

The majority of captured arthropod groups did not vary significantly in abundance among sites (P > 0.05, ANOVA, Table 2). One-third of all groups had fewer than 20 representatives in the traps (Table 2). The total abundance of all arthropod groups did not vary significantly among sites (P > 0.05, ANOVA, Table 2). Of the 13 groups on which *post hoc* multiple comparisons tests could be run (excluding Formicidae as a group), six groups demonstrated that sites A and J are more similar to each other than to either site P or S (Tables 2-4).

Exclusion of ants from the diversity indices resulted in a 30% H' increase for sites A and J, compared to a 5% and 9% H' decrease for sites S and P, respectively (Table 5). Formicid Community Coefficient of Similarity (CC) mirrored the combined CCs of plant, spider, and higher taxa (Table 6). Sites A, J, and S were more similar to each other in species identity for Formicidae and plants than they were to site P. Plant and spider species composition differed greatly among sites (Tables 1, 4).

Spiders were diverse at all sites, although only two species were abundant (Table 4). Less than 60% of the spider species were caught at more than one site. The lycosid *Pirata zelotes* was the most abundant spider, followed by the hahniid *Neoantistea agilis* (Table 4). Sites A and J did not differ significantly in abundance of *N. agilis* and total spiders, but were significantly different from site S with regard to these taxa ($P \le 0.05$, SNK test, Table 4). Site P had significantly more *N. agilis*, but not significantly more spiders as a group, than sites A and J ($P \le 0.05$, SNK test, Table 4).

Table 1. Plant composition and diversity in four study sites, Dyke Marsh Wildlife Preserve, Virginia. Bolded names and values indicate alien plants. Underlined values indicate the most dominant plant in each site.

		Estimated	Estimated percent cover per s		
Species	Common name	Α	J	P	S
Acer rubrum	red maple	0.64	0.11	0	0.88
Ampelopsis brevipedunculata	porcelainberry	0	0.46	<u>71.25</u>	1.32
Aster sp.	aster	0	0	1.00	0
Berberis thunbergii	Japanese barberry	0	0	0	0.22
Botrychium virginianum	rattlesnake fern	0	0.34	0	0.66
Campsis radicans	trumpet creeper	0	0.23	0	0.22
Carya cordiformis	bitternut hickory	0.80	0.69	0	0
Carya sp.	hickory	1.29	0	0	C
Celastrus orbiculatus	Asiatic bittersweet	<u>51.13</u>	13.97	10.07	8.33
Celtis occidentalis	hackberry	0.16	0	0	0
Clematis terniflora	Asian clematis	0.64	5.50	0	0.88
Cornus florida	flowering dogwood	0	0	0.18	0.44
Dioscorea villosa	wild yam	0	0.11	0	1.75
Duchesnea indica	Asian strawberry	0	0.46	0	0
Eupatorium rugosum	snakeroot	0	0.57	0	3.29
Fraxinus americana	white ash	0	0.11	0	0
Fraxinus pennsylvanica	green ash	0	0.11	0	0
Galium obtusum	stiff bedstraw	0	0.23	0	0
Galium triflorum	sweet-scented bedstraw	0	0.69	0	0
Geum canadense	white avens	0	0.23	0	0
Ligustrum sp.	privet	0	0.23	0	0.66
Lindera benzoin	spicebush	5.31	4.70	0	6.36
Liquidambar styraciflua	sweetgum	0.48	0.34	0	0.44
Lonicera japonica	Japanese honeysuckle	8.36	<u>37.57</u>	10.44	7.02
Lonicera maackii	Amur honeysuckle	1.29	1.15	0	0.44
Lysimachia ciliata	fringed loosestrife	0	0	0	1.75
Onoclea sensibilis	sensitive fern	0	0.46	0	25.00
Parthenocissus quinquefolia	Virginia creeper	0.16	4.93	0	3.95
Prunus serotina	wild black cherry	0.48	3.78	0.55	1,32
Quercus phellos	willow oak	0.16	0.46	0	1.10
Quercus velutina	black oak	0	0.11	0	0.22
Rosa multiflora	multiflora rose	1.29	0.23	0	2.63
Rubus argutus	serrated-leaf blackberry	0.16	0.11	5.86	1.54
Sambucus canadensis	common elder	0	0	0.18	0.22
Sassafras albidum	sassafras	0	0.11	0	0
Smilax rotundifolia	round-leaf greenbrier	0	0	0	0.44
Toxicodendron radicans	poison ivy	8.84	16.15	0.73	8.33
Uluius americana	American elm	0.32	0.80	0	1.97
Viburnum molle	smooth arrowwood	16.88	4.70	0.55	12.94
Viburnum prunifolium	black haw	1.45	0.23	0	5.70
Vitis sp.	grape	0.16	0.11	0	0
Total percent invasion†	OE -	77 ± 13	47 ± 21	89 ± 14	10 ± 12
Number of species		20	33	10	29
Shannon index of diversity (H')		1.68	2.13	1.04	2.63
Shannon index of evenness (E)		0.56	0.61	0.45	0.78

[†] Percent invasion (mean ± 1 SD) for each site determined from plant survey information. n = 100 plots per site.

Table 2. Number of arthropods (mean \pm 1 SD) captured per pitfall trap (n = 10) at four study sites in Dyke Marsh Wildlife Preserve, Virginia.†

			Si	ite	
Taxon	Common name	\mathbf{A}	J	P	S
Araneae‡	Spiders	$7.3 \pm 4.4a$	$5.6 \pm 2.7a$	$9.8 \pm 3.8a,b$	$10.1 \pm 2.8b$
Blattaria	Cockroaches	0.2 ± 0.4	0.6 ± 1.1	0.3 ± 0.5	0.5 ± 0.7
Chilopoda	Centipedes	1.5 ± 1.9	2.7 ± 1.8	2 ± 2.6	0.9 ± 0.6
Coleoptera‡	Beetles	$14 \pm 3.6a$	$11 \pm 2.2b$	$9.1 \pm 3.1b$	$9.3 \pm 1.7b$
Collembola‡	Springtails	$34.6 \pm 9.4a$	48.1 ± 11.9 b	$121.5 \pm 28.2c$	85.6 ± 17.1 d
Dermaptera	Earwigs	0	0.2 ± 0.4	0	0.2 ± 0.6
Diplopoda‡	Millipedes	$0.8 \pm 1.0a$	$0.5 \pm 1.0a$	6.8 ± 3.8 b	$0.7 \pm 0.7a$
Diplura	Diplurans	1 ± 1.4	1.4 ± 1.8	0	0.6 ± 1.0
Diptera	Flies	6.1 ± 2.0	7.1 ± 2.7	9.2 ± 4.4	6.6 ± 2.8
Formicidae‡	Ants	$152 \pm 41.4a$	$137.6 \pm 62.0a$	40.1 ± 17.4 b	58.5 ± 27.9 b
Hemiptera	Bugs	1.4 ± 1.3	0.8 ± 0.9	0.7 ± 0.9	0.3 ± 0.7
Homoptera	Bugs	1.1 ± 0.6	1.3 ± 1.2	0.5 ± 0.5	1.5 ± 1.6
Hymenoptera§	Bees, Sawflies, Wasps	5.1 ± 2.3	9.1 ± 3.1	7.5 ± 5.8	6.6 ± 3.2
Isopoda‡	Sowbugs, Pillbugs, and kin	$1.1 \pm 0.7a$	$1.3 \pm 0.9a$	$6.9 \pm 6.3b$	$2.2 \pm 1.5a$
Isoptera	Termites	0.4 ± 0.7	0	0.1 ± 0.3	0
Lepidoptera	Butterflies, Moths	0.3 ± 0.7	0.2 ± 0.6	0.3 ± 0.5	0.3 ± 0.5
Neuroptera	Dustywings	0	0.1 ± 0.3	0	0
Opiliones	Harvestmen	9.2 ± 3.6	12.6 ± 5.6	9.7 ± 2.9	9.3 ± 3.4
Orthoptera‡	Crickets, Grasshoppers, and kin	$19.9 \pm 4.9a$	13.9 ± 2.6 b	$22.3 \pm 9.8a$	$23.6 \pm 5.2a$
Pseudoscorpiones	Pseudoscorpions	0.2 ± 0.4	0.8 ± 0.9	0	0.3 ± 0.5
Psocoptera	Barklice	0	0.6 ± 0.8	0	0.2 ± 0.4
Symphyla	Symphylans	0.4 ± 0.7	0.3 ± 0.7	0	0.3 ± 0.7
Thysanura	Bristletails	0.2 ± 0.4	0	0	0.1 ± 0.3
Thysanoptera	Thrips	0.4 ± 0.7	0.7 ± 0.7	0.1 ± 0.3	0.5 ± 0.5
Trichoptera	Caddisflies	0	0.2 ± 0.4	0	0.1 ± 0.3
Total Arthropods		257 ± 82.5	256 ± 106.3	246.9 ± 91.1	218.3 ± 74.7

[†] Within rows, means followed by different letters are significantly different from one another. We used a Tukey test for Diplopoda. $P \le 0.05$.

[§] Exclusive of Formicidae.

Table 3. Numbers of ants (mean \pm 1 SD) captured per pitfall trap (n = 10) at four study sites in Dyke Marsh Wildlife Preserve, Virginia.

	Site							
Taxon	A	J	P	S				
Acanthomyops sp.	0	0.2 ± 0.4	0	0.1 ± 0.3				
Amblyopone pallipes	0	0	0.2 ± 0.4	0				
Aphaenogaster rudis†	$39.2 \pm 37.2b$	25.5 ± 9.4 b	$4.7 \pm 5.4a$	$9.7 \pm 7.3a$				
Camponotus castaneus	0.1 ± 0.3	0.2 ± 0.4	0.1 ± 0.3	0				
Camponotus nearcticus	0.1 ± 0.3	0	0.1 ± 0.3	0				
Camponotus pennsylvanicus	0.2 ± 0.4	0	0	0.1 ± 0.3				
Camponotus subbarbartus	0.1 ± 0.3	0	0.1 ± 0.3	0				
Crematogaster cerasi	0	0.1 ± 0.3	0	0				
Crematogaster pilosa	0	0	1.2 ± 1.2	0				
Lasius alienus†	$1.8 \pm 1.3b$	$5.6 \pm 4.7a$	$6.6 \pm 4.8a$	$5.0 \pm 3.8a$				
Leptothorax curvispinosis	0.4 ± 0.7	1.3 ± 1.2	0.8 ± 1.0	0.8 ± 0.8				
Myrmecina americana	1.1 ± 1.1	0.5 ± 0.5	1.3 ± 1.6	0.5 ± 1.0				
Myrmica emeryana	0	0	0.3 ± 0.7	0				
Myrmica punctiventris	0	0	0.7 ± 1.3	0				
Paratrechina faisonensis†	25.5 ± 5.5 b	20.2 ± 6.2 a,b	19.7 ± 8.4 a,b	$12.6 \pm 7.6a$				
Ponera pennsylvanicus†	0.5 ± 1.1	0.2 ± 0.6	1.9 ± 1.4	1.9 ± 1.7				
Prenolepis imparis†	$79.4 \pm 40.2b$	80.2 ± 55.7 b	$2.1 \pm 1.8c$	$25.9 \pm 15.4a$				
Proceratium silaceum	0.1 ± 0.3	0	0	0				
Pyramica ohioensis	0	0.4 ± 1.3	0	0.1 ± 0.3				
Pyramica rostrata	1.1 ± 1.0	1.7 ± 3.1	0.2 ± 0.4	0.2 ± 0.4				
Stenamma brevicorne†	$1.6 \pm 1.8a$	$1.1 \pm 0.9a$	$0.1 \pm 0.3b$	$1.4 \pm 1.6a$				
Stenamma impar	0.4 ± 0.7	0.4 ± 0.5	0	0.2 ± 0.6				
Total ants	$151 \pm 41.4b$	$137 \pm 62.0b$	$40 \pm 17.4a$	$58 \pm 27.9a$				

[†] $P \le 0.05$. Within rows, means followed by different letters are significantly different from one another; *Ponera pennsylvanicus* sample size was too small for a *post hoc* analysis.

DISCUSSION

We found that abundances of some arthropod taxa were highly variable among sites. There were large differences in arthropod abundance and plant species richness between site P and the other three sites, and formicid CC may be a good indicator of changes in the entire terrestrial arthropod community in the forest. Small samples may have prevented us from finding many possible differences in arthropod abundance among sites (Table 2).

Site P, a forest opening evidently caused by a large tree fall, is markedly different from the other three sites and had the lowest plant H' and E (Table 2). A dense mat of the vigorous, alien vine A. brevipedunculata comprised 71% of the site's plant cover and appears to be maintaining the forest opening by excluding new tree seedlings and out-competing other plants for light,

space, and other resources. Further, this vine may be excluding arthropods present in typical forest succession in the DMWP.

Plants can change soil chemistry by adding nutritive matter from their fallen parts and ectocrine substances and by removing soil nutrients and water. For example, in the Netherlands, the chemistry of decomposing leaves on a forest floor explained much of the variation in a collembolan community (Pinto et al., 1997). The abundance of litter-associated taxa such as Collembola, Diplopoda, Formicidae, and Isopoda in site P varied significantly from their abundances in the other sites. Site P had 359 more Collembola, and 60 more alien, invasive millipeds (*O. pilosus*) than any other site. Our ongoing DMWP research may identify which factors determine the distribution of *O. pilosus*. The presence of this milliped may be associated with the presence of *A. brevipedunculata* and its environmental effects.

Although ant abundance at site P was low, its ant diversity (H') was the highest of all four sites (Table 5). We caught four ant species unique to site P, possibly because the highly competitive False Honey Ant (P.

Table 4. Number of spiders (mean ± 1 SD) captured per pitfall trap (n = 10) at four study sites in Dyke Marsh Wildlife Preserve, Virginia.

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		Site						
Species	A		J		P		S	
Agelenopsis sp.	0.1 ±	0.3	0		0		0	
Agroeca prateusis	0.1 ±	0.3	0		0		0	
Anyphaena sp.	0		0		0		0.1 ±	0.3
Anyphaenidae spp.	0		0.1 ±	0.3	0.1 ±	0.3	0	
Araneidae spp.	0.1 ±	0.3	0		0.1 ±	0.3	0.2 ±	0.4
Castianeira variata	0		0.2 ±	0.4	0.2 ±	0.4	0	
Crustulina altera	0.1 ±	0.3	0.2 ±	0.4	0		0	
Crustulina sp.	0.1 ±	0.3	0.1 ±	0.3	0		0.1 ±	0.3
Dictyna sp.	0		0.1 ±	0.3	0		0.3 ±	0.5
Drassyllus sp.	0.2±	0.4	0.6 ±	0.7	0.4 ±	0.5	0.2 ±	0.4
Dysdera crocata	0.1 ±	0.3	0		0.4±	0.7	0.1 ±	0.3
Eidmannella pallida	0.1 ±	0.3	0		0.3 ±	0.6	0	
Erigoninae spp.	0.2 ±	0.4	0.2 ±	0.6	0.1 ±	0.3	0.2 ±	0.6
Euryopis argentea	0.2±	0.4	0.1 ±	0.3	0		0	
Habrocestum pulex	0.2±	0.4	0.1 ±	0.3	0.4 ±	0.5	0.3 ±	0.5
Linyphiidae sp. a	0		0		0		0.1 ±	0.3
Linyphiidae sp. b	0.2±	0.4	0		0		0.5 ±	0.7
Linyphiidae sp. c	0		0		0.9±	1	0	
Linyphiidae sp. d	0		0.1 ±	0.3	0		0	
Linyphiidae sp. e	0		0		0.2 ±	0.4	0	
Linyphiidae sp. f	0.1 ±	0.3	0		0.3 ±	0.5	0	
Linyphiidae sp. g	0		0		0.1 ±	0.3	0	
Linyphiinae spp.	0.8±	0.8	0.5 ±	0.5	0.8 ±	1.0	0.4 ±	0.5
Neoantistea agilis†	0.4±	0.7a	0.4 ±	0.7a	1.7 ±	1.1b	1.9 ±	1.4b
Neoscona domiciliorum	0		0		0		0.1 ±	0.3
Pardosa sp.	0		0.2 ±	0.4	0		0	
Phrurotimpus	0.1	0.2	061	0.5	0.4.	0.5		
borealis	0.1 ±	0.3	0.6 ±		0.4±	0.5	0	0.5
Phrurotimpus sp.	0	2.0	0.1 ± 1.7 ±		0	1.2	0.3 ± 3.6 ±	
Pirata zelotes	3.1 ±	2.0	1.7 ±	1.5	2.5 ± 0.1 ±		3.0±	1.7
Pisaurina sp.			0		0.1 ±		0	
Schizocosa ocreata	0.5±	0.7	0.1 ±	0.2	$0.1 \pm 0.3 \pm$		0.7 ±	0.5
Scotinella redempta	0.5 ±						0.7± 0.2±	
Scotinella sp.	0.2 ±	0.4	0.1 ± 0.1 ±		0.2 ±	0.4	0.2 ±	0.4
Sergiolus sp.			0.1 ±	0.5	0		0.1 ±	0.2
Theridiidae sp.		0.7	0		0.1 ±	0.7	$0.1 \pm 0.7 \pm$	
Xysticus sp.	0.4±	0.7	0		0.1 ±		0.7±	0.7
Zelotes sp.		1.1c		270				2 OF
Total spiders†	11.3±	4.4a	$5.6 \pm$	2./a	17.8 ±	5.8a,0	$10.1 \pm$	2.80

[†] $P \le 0.05$. Within rows, means followed by different letters are significantly different from one another.

impairs) was rare at this site, although an associated increase in other ant abundance is not apparent (Table 3). Based on our methodology, we cannot rule out the possibility that this ant was more common at site P than our traps indicated. This ant may have been foraging mostly on A. brevipedunculata and other plants not on the ground where the traps could collect it. Decreases in normally abundant ant species may be a sign of change in the ecology of an area according to Lynch et al. (1980). In eastern Maryland, they found that this usually common ant is sensitive to high temperatures and often becomes inactive when temperatures exceed 26° C. Site P is noticeably warmer than the other sites when there is direct sunlight (pers. obs.), and the ground temperature may sometimes exceed that tolerated by P. imparis.

Sites P and S had low numbers of *Aphaenogaster rudis* and *P. imparis*, although there were significantly more *P. imparis* in the latter site. Site S is near a tidal channel and was periodically flooded during our study. The wet ground may have reduced the numbers of *P. imparis* and affected the arthropod community in other ways as well.

Composite CC values (where Formicidae are excluded) were nearly identical to formicid CC values (Table 6), and this may have important implications for future studies. We are currently working on a more comprehensive study of both soil and terrestrial arthropods and plan to evaluate whether a species-level

Table 5. Shannon-Weaver index of diversity (H') and Shannon index of evenness (E) for arthropod classes and orders, spiders, and ants caught at each site in Dyke Marsh Wildlife Preserve, Virginia.

_		Site	9	
Arthropoda*	\mathbf{A}	J	P	S
Arthropod abundance	2,568	2,567	2,469	2,183
No. of classes/orders (25 total)	20	22	16	22
H'	1.25	1.35	1.37	1.44
E	0.42	0.44	0.50	0.47
H' excluding Formicidae	1.73	1.77	1.24	1,36
E excluding Formicidae	0.57	0.57	0.44	0.43
Araneae (Spiders)				
Spider abundance	73	56	98	101
Number of species (37 total)	20	19	22	19
H'	2.23	2.44	2.53	2.23
E	0.74	0.83	0.82	0.76
Formicidae (Ants)				
Ant abundance	1,516	1,376	401	585
Number of species (22 total)	14	15	16	13
H'	1.26	1.24	1.68	1.57
E	0.48	0.46	0.64	0.61

^{*}Includes all orders and classes listed in Table 2 except for Acari.

formicid CC is a good indicator for a total arthropod CC at a particular site. Ants may be ideal organisms for examining terrestrial community changes, although Alonso's (2000) review did not find them useful for this purpose. Ants make up a large portion of pitfall catches, are easy to separate from other taxa, are relatively easy to identify to the species level with a reference collection and a database such as the BDWA (Barrows & Kjar, 2004), and are inexpensive to preserve.

Sites A and J had lower abundances of isopods, orthopterans, spiders, and springtails, but nearly three times more ants than sites P and S combined (Table 2). Predaceous generalist and specialist ants may be reducing the abundance of some of these groups. For example, 32 of the 37 individuals of *Pyramica* ants, which prey upon springtails, were in sites A and J, and may have caused the low springtail abundances in these sites. Sites A and J had lower evenness among ants species compared with the other two sites. Site A had the lowest ant diversity (15 species), and 10 of these species each comprised less than 1% of the site's total ant abundance; 78% of the ants were *A. rudis* and *P. imparis* (Table 3).

All sites had very different and diverse spider assemblages, and most spider species did not show any trend in relation to the plant CCs (Tables 4 and 6). There were significantly fewer *N. agilis* (Hahniidae) in sites A and J than in the other two sites (Table 4). Heterogeneity of ground cover may have influenced the distribution of these spiders among these sites (Uetz, 1979). Sites P and S both have dense, low vegetation, while sites A and J do not. Low ground cover can affect diversity and abundance of ground-hunting spider species, and this may explain the much lower abundance of spiders caught in sites with little or no ground cover (Uetz, 1976).

Table 6. Community Coefficient of Similarity (CC) among four study sites in Dyke Marsh Wildlife Preserve, Virginia.

	Site comparison							
Taxa	SxJ	SxA	SxP	J x A	JxP	AxP		
Plants	0.740	0.626	0.410	0.640	0.265	0.360		
Ants	0.757	0.859	0.596	0.744	0.697	0.589		
Spiders	0.557	0.649	0.520	0.593	0.660	0.441		
Higher taxa†	0.862	0.861	0.888	0.775	0.937	0.567		
Rank combined‡	2	1	5	3	4	6		
Rank ants	2	1	5	3	4	6		
Rank combined								
without ants	1	2	5	3	4	6		

[†] Higher taxa refers to all groups in Table 2.

Arthropod and plant diversities varied greatly among our study sites, and these animals and plants are likely to influence one another's diversities. Previous studies have demonstrated that insect abundance and diversity can be affected by changes in plant species abundance and diversity. An extensive study in Minnesota found that changes in plant species richness and plant functional-group diversity affect arthropod abundance (Haddad et al., 2001) as well as the stability of natural systems (Tilman et al., 1997). The proportion of native plants in a prairie reserve near Chicago, Illinois, explained nearly half of the variance in species richness of insects found in the reserve but absent from neighboring non-reserve areas (Panzer & Schwartz, 1998). A New Zealand study found that the percentage of native beetle species was positively correlated with the proportion of native plants in study sites (Crisp et al., 1998). Plant community changes, such as artificial monocultures in tropical agroecosystems, cause large changes in arthropod biodiversity and abundance (Perfecto & Snelling, 1995). Alien invasive plants can form monocultures, or near-monocultures, which are likely to change original arthropod communities. Such plants are major weeds in nature preserves, for example, Rock Creek Park in Washington, D.C. (Salmons, 2000).

In conclusion, we found 255 species and morphospecies of arthropods in a low forest that is highly invaded by alien plants. The abundance of 10 arthropod taxa varied significantly among four study Future studies should examine possible relationships between arthropod biodiversity and invasive alien plants. On one hand, these plants may increase population sizes of native arthropods that feed on their nectar, pollen, and other parts. In the DMWP, many native bee, butterfly, fly, and wasp species obtain food from flowers of alien plants (pers. obs.), and some of these animals might have become more common due to these plants. On the other hand, alien plants can decrease population sizes of native arthropods. These plants can invade and change natural habitats and reduce population sizes of native plants used as food by native arthropods, and in turn reduce the numbers of these animals. Alien plants such as Alliaria petiolata (Garlic Mustard), A. brevipedunculata, C. orbiculatus, Hedera helix (English Ivy), and L. japonica reduce the number of native plants used as food by native arthropods,

Among the 41 plant species in this study, three aliens, *A. brevipedunculata*, *C. orbiculatus*, and *L. japonica* had a mean total plant cover in the four study sites of 58%. Some of the variability of the arthropods in this study may result from changes in the plant community induced by alien plants. We are currently

^{*} Ranks combined is a ranked average of data from all plants and ant, spider, and higher arthropod taxa. This scale is from 1-6, with 1 indicating the two sites most similar and 6 the two sites that are least similar.

working on a new large-scale study with 60 replicate sites in the DMWP to test several hypotheses: Changes in terrestrial arthropod diversity are associated with the level of invasion by alien invasive plants; there are indicator groups of the diversity of the terrestrial and soil arthropod community; and native plant species richness is inversely related to level of alien plant invasion. To protect biodiversity, resource managers must know many things about native and alien arthropod species, including their identities, relative abundances, microhabitats, and other resource uses, as well as how alien, invasive organisms affect them.

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Appendix 1. Arthropod taxa from pitfall-trap samples from the low forest of Dyke Marsh Wildlife Preserve, Virginia, 2000–2001. Figures in parentheses denote the number of morphospecies that were not identified beyond the taxonomic level indicated.

Arachnida Diplopoda Julida Acari (13) Ixodidae (1) Julidae Araneae (see Table 4) Ophyiulus pilosus Pseudoscorpiones (2) Parajulidae Ptvoiulus impressus Opiliones Phalangiidae Chordeumatida Hadrobunus maculosus Cleidugenidae Leiobunum sp. Cleidogona sp. Chilopoda Entognatha Geophilomorpha Collembola Dignathodontidae Dicyrtomidae Strigamia bothriopa Dicyrtoma fusca Strigamia branneri Entomobryidae Geophilidae Homidia sauteri Arctogeophilis umbraticus Homidia socia Geophilus varians Lepidocyrtus sp. Pachymerium ferrugineum Poduridae Lithobiomorpha Friesea sp. Lithobiidae (2) Sminthuridae Goribius sp. Symphypleona sp. Tomoceridae (1) Sigibius sp. Diplura Crustacea (Malacostraca) Campodeidae (1) Isopoda (2)

Appendix 1 (continued)

eecta	Pentatomidae
Coleoptera	Amaurochrous cinctipes
Anthicidae	Brochymena quadripustulata
Tomoderus constrictus	Reduviidae (1)
Anthribidae (1)	Miridae
Biphyllidae (1)	Fulvius slateri
Carabidae	Homoptera
Platynus decentis	Pseudococcidae (1)
Harpalus sp.	Aphididae (1)
Cyclotrachelus sodalis	Cicadellidae (5)
Peocilus lucublandus	Flattidae (1)
Chlaenius erythropus	Psyllidae (1)
Galerita bicolor	Hymenoptera
Polyderis sp.	Bethylidae (8)
Chrysomelidae	Braconidae (1)
Multipunctata bigsbyana	Diapriidae
Colydiidae	Basalys spp. (2)
Paha laticollis	Belyta sp.
Cryptophagidae (1)	Coptera sp.
Curculionidae (Trichopria spp. (4)
Ostiorhynchus rugostriatus	Formicidae (see Table 3)
Callirhopallus bifasciatus	Mymaridae (3)
Acalles carinatus	Pteromalidae
Acalles porosus	Alotera sp.
Oedophrys hilleri	Dipara spp. (2)
Elateridae (1)	Scelionidae (18)
Endomychidae (1)	unknown micro-wasp family (3)
Histeridae (1)	Isoptera
Lampyridae	Rhinotermitidae
Photinus sp.	Reticulitermes flavipes
Photuris sp.	Lepidoptera (6)
Leiodidae (3)	Mecoptera
Nitidulidae	Meropeidae
Epuraea rufa	Merope tuber
Stelidota geminata	Neuroptera
Pselaphidae	Coniopterygidae (1)
Adranes lecontei	Orthoptera (3)
Brachygluta sp.	Gryllidae
Scarabaeidae (1)	Hapithus agitator
Anomola marginata	Neonemobius palustris
Onthophagus hecate	Pictonemobius ambitosus
Serica brunnea	Raphidophoridae
Scolytidae (3)	Tachycines asynamorus
Silphidae (2)	Psocoptera
Silvanidae (1)	Lepidopsocidae (1)
Staphylinidae (10)	Liposcelidae
Dermaptera	Liposcelis sp.
Forficulidae	Polypsocidae (1)
Forficula auricularia	Psyllipsocidae (1)
Dictyoptera	Mycrocoryphia
Blatellidae	Machilidae (1)
Parcoblatta sp.	Thysanoptera (2)
Diptera (25)	Aelopthripidae (2)
Heteroptera (3)	Thripidae (1)
Lygaeidae	Trichoptera (1)
Drymus crassus	Symphyla (1)
Ozophora picturata	<i>շյութույա (1)</i>